A Satyam Roychowdhury initiative

THE INFLUENCE OF PERCEIVED PARENTAL BONDING ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND RESILIENCE AMONG YOUNG ADULTS

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Work Under Supervision Of

SHRESTHA ASH (LECTURER)

Department of Psychology

Sister Nivedita University

Submitted by

SREEJITA GHOSH

M.SC student

Clinical Psychology

Department of Psychology

Sister Nivedita University

Examined.
05/05/2025.

A Satyam Roychowdhury Initiative

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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the dissertation entitled "The Influence of Perceived Parental Bonding on Emotional Intelligence and Resilience Among Young Adults", submitted by Sreejita Ghosh, a 2nd year M.SC student in Clinical Psychology, Sister Nivedita University, is as Bonafide work, which may be placed before the board of examiners for their evaluation. This is in partial fulfilment for the Degree of M.SC in Clinical Psychology, Sister Nivedita University.

This is an original study done by the candidate and has not been submitted by her before any form for any other degree of this University or any other University.

Shrestha Ash.

Date: 30.04.25.

Kolkata

Work Under Supervision of
Shrestha Ash (Lecturer)

Department of Psychology

Sister Nivedita University

DECLARATION

"I, Sreejita Ghosh, hereby declare that the research work titled, " The Influence of Perceived Parental Bonding on Emotional Intelligence and Resilience Among Young Adults ", conducted by me, has been completed with full honesty and integrity. I confirm that the work is original, and all sources of information have been appropriately acknowledged and cited. I take full responsibility for the content and findings presented in this research."

Signature: Sreejita Ghosh

Name: Sreejita Ghosh

Enrollment ID:2322230002112

Program and Semester: M.SC in Applied Psychology (Clinical Psychology Specialization)

Year: 2025

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DATE: 30.4.25

Sreejita Ghosh

Sreejita Ghosh,
Department Of Psychology
Sister Nivedita University

ABSTRACT

Parental bonding, emotional intelligence, and resilience are important throughout life because they form the foundation of mental health, social relationships, and coping skills. Parental bonding plays a crucial role in shaping various aspects of life, including emotional development, interpersonal relationships, and mental well-being. It influences emotional intelligence, resilience, and coping strategies, which are essential for navigating life's challenges. Understanding parental bonding offers valuable insights into personal growth and adaptive functioning in adulthood. Emotional intelligence is vital for managing emotions, building healthy relationships, and making sound decisions. It enhances self-awareness, empathy, and social skills and perception of emotions, which are essential for personal and professional success. High emotional intelligence fosters resilience, effective communication, and conflict resolution, contributing to overall well-being and adaptability in various life situations. Resilience is essential for overcoming challenges and adapting to adversity in various life aspects. It helps individuals bounce back from setbacks, manage stress, and maintain well-being. By fostering problem-solving skills and emotional strength, resilience enables personal growth, enhances coping mechanisms, and supports success in both personal and professional environments.

The study sample consisted of 65 participants aged 18 to 25 years. To assess perceived parental bonding, the Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI) was used, measuring both maternal and paternal care and overprotection. Emotional intelligence was evaluated using the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale, while the Brief Resilience Scale (BRS) was employed to assess resilience.

Data analysis was done using Spearman Correlation, Independent T-tests and Mann Whitney U Test. There is significant positive correlation between mother care and emotional intelligence and there is no significant correlation between mother overprotection and emotional intelligence, father care and emotional intelligence, father overprotection and emotional intelligence. There is no significant correlation between mother care and resilience, mother overprotection and resilience, father care and resilience and father overprotection and resilience. There is no significant difference in emotional intelligence and resilience based on gender among young adults.

Key Words: Parental Bonding, Emotional Intelligence, Resilience, Young Adults.

CONTENTS

Page No.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION.....7 - 16

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE..... 17 - 22

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY..... 23 - 27

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION.....28 - 37

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION .....38 - 43

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION, LIMITATION, SCOPE, APPLICABILITY.....44 - 46

CHAPTER VII

REFERENCES..... 47 - 49

CHAPTER VIII

APPENDICES.....50 - 58

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

Physical, cognitive, emotional and social growth that occur from infancy to adolescence is referred to as the child development. This period is typically divided into key developmental stages each marked by significant milestones –

- Infancy (0-2 years) marked by rapid physical growth, sensory development, attachment formation and early language skills. Babies learn to recognize caregivers and respond to stimuli.
- Early childhood (2-6 years) marked by language development, motor skills improvement and cognitive abilities expands.
- Middle childhood (6-12 years) marked by emerging of logical thinking, children become more independent and engage in peer relationship.
- Adolescence (12-18 years) marked by puberty, identity identification and emotional development.

Key concepts in child development include nature vs nurture, attachment theory, cognitive development and social learning this help explain how biological and environmental factor shape a child's growth and behaviour.

Young adults experience significant development in various areas, including achieving autonomy, establishing identity, developing emotional stability, in this stage cognitive development is marked by refined thinking, abstract reasoning, greater wisdom and social maturity. In this period social development includes achieving autonomy, establishing identity, forming intimate relationships and navigating social roles; young adults tend to be more emotionally stable, develop self-awareness, develop empathy and compassion. They develop resilience and coping mechanisms and life satisfaction. Erikson's intimacy vs isolation theory highlights the need for meaningful bonds, as strong relationship fosters emotional well-being while isolation make the individual inclined towards loneliness. Career growth and financial independence become priorities influencing self-identity and future stability.

Interpersonal relationships refer to social connections between individuals which is shaped by communication, emotions and shared experiences. Interpersonal relationships enhance through different stages, including attraction, communication, trust-building and long-term bonding. This factor contributes to psychological well-being, providing a sense of belonging and

security. Strong relationship helps in improving emotional intelligence, resilience and conflict-resolution skills.

Perceived Parental Bonding

Perceived Parental bonding refers to how an individual subjectively experienced and interpreted their relationship with the caregiver. It put into light how a person perceives emotional connection care and warmth and support they received from their parents during childhood and adolescence. This perception may differ from actual parental behaviour and can significantly influence emotional development, psychological wellbeing and interpersonal relationships.

Parental bonding is an umbrella construct it includes a variety of micro-constructs i.e. children's relationship and their attachment with their parents, how much parents are caring towards their children, level of parental involvement in children's lives, and parenting styles (Morin, 2019).

Parental bonding is an important concept in developmental and clinical psychology. It refers to the emotional connection that develops between the parent and the children. Parental bonding is foundational to a child's psychological development and it influences the child's emotional and cognitive and social growth. Parental bonding comprises of the sense of closeness, protection, nurturance and emotional availability that the parents offer their children, particularly in the early years of life.

This concept of parental bonding became prominent in the mid-20th century with the work of John Bowlby, his attachment theory underscored the importance of secure bonds between caregivers and children.

Parental bonding is considered as a precursor to healthy attachment formation. A lack of parental bonding due to reasons like parental indifference, rejection or harsh treatment can result in insecure attachment, developmental delays, behavioural disorders, and difficulties forming healthy adult relationships, whereas strong parental bonding fosters emotional security, self-esteem and adaptive coping mechanisms.

The concept of parental bonding mainly focuses on the parent's affection, warmth, protection and emotional presence towards the child. This bond begins right after birth and continues to evolve as the child grows. The concept of parenting style mainly focuses on the overall approach or strategy parents use to raise their children. The concept of parenting style was

popularised by Diana Baumrind (1960), who described four major parenting styles such as – authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, neglectful. Parental bonding influences parenting style in a various way and the quality of parental bonding is often reflected by the parenting style; such as a parent with high emotional bonding may exert an authoritative parenting style whereas a parent with a poor emotional bonding may lean toward a neglectful or authoritarian parenting. Although both the concept is related, they represent distinct constructs in psychology. Parental bonding mainly focuses on emotional connection between parent and child, whereas parenting style are the general strategies used by parents to raise their child. In parental bonding the parent's feelings and connection towards the child is considered and on the other hand in parenting style the behavioural patterns in parenting practice are considered. Parental bonding is more about the affective bond that develops through daily caregiving, physical closeness and responsiveness. It represents the emotional foundation, while parenting style describe the methods of child rearing applied as the child grows older.

Attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969) focuses on how the child perceives and relates to the caregiver based on the responsiveness and availability experienced in early interactions. Attachment styles such as secure, anxious, avoidant, disorganized describe the child's relational strategies, whereas the parental bonding reflects the parent's emotional stance and investment in the relationship. Parental bonding focuses on parent's feelings, behaviours and emotional presence whereas attachment style focuses on child's response to parental behaviour.

Studies by Ainsworth (1979) and Bowlby (1988) emphasized that secure attachment between parents and children fosters emotional regulation and social competence. Parental bonding plays a crucial role in shaping a child's emotional intelligence, influencing how they understand, manage, and express their emotions, as well as how they relate to others. Emotional intelligence is the ability to recognize, understand, and regulate one's emotions, and to empathize with others. This skill is essential for forming healthy relationships, coping with challenges, and succeeding in both personal and professional life. The foundation of emotional intelligence is laid in early childhood, and the quality of the parent-child bond significantly impacts its development.

Research by Milkolajczak et al., (2016) suggests that early emotional security influences emotional intelligence. When children experience strong parental bonding, characterized by love, support, and open communication, they develop a sense of emotional security Milkolajczak et al., (2016). Parents who respond sensitively to their children's needs and make

them understand that emotions are valid and manageable. Through observing and interacting with emotionally available parents, children learn to identify their own feelings, express them in the right situation, and regulate their emotions during stressful situations, Denham et al., (1997). This nurturing environment promotes self-awareness and self-regulation, which are two key components of emotional intelligence.

Parental bonding also influences how children perceive and respond to the emotions of others. When parents show empathy towards their children and others, children are more likely to develop empathy themselves. This helps them build strong social skills, as they become more attuned to others' feelings and can respond with understanding and compassion, Eisenberg et al., (2014). On the other hand, children who experience neglect, harsh discipline, or emotional unavailability from their parents may struggle to recognize and process emotions, both their own and those of others, Morris et al., (2007). This can lead to difficulties in forming healthy relationships and coping with emotional challenges later in life.

The attachment style formed through parental bonding also plays a significant role in emotional intelligence. Securely attached children, who trust that their parents will be there to support and comfort them, tend to develop higher emotional intelligence. They feel confident exploring the world and forming relationships because they have learned from their parents how to manage emotions and navigate social situations. Children with insecure attachments, caused by inconsistent or unresponsive parenting, may develop poor emotional regulation and difficulty understanding their own and others' emotions.

It is important to note that while parental bonding is a powerful influence, it is not the only factor shaping emotional intelligence. Schools, peer relationships, and life experiences also play a role. However, the early lessons learned from parents often serve as a blueprint for future emotional development. When parents model healthy emotional expression, provide a safe space for emotional conversations, and teach problem-solving skills, they equip their children with tools to handle life's challenges with emotional resilience and empathy.

Parental bonding plays a vital role in shaping a child's resilience — the ability to cope with adversity, recover from challenges, and adapt to difficult situations. Resilience is the skill that develop over time and not an inborn trait, and the quality of the parent-child bond greatly influences how well children learn to deal with stress and overcome obstacles, Ann Masten (2001). When children feel secure, loved, and supported by their parents, they are more likely

to develop a strong sense of inner strength and confidence, which helps them face life's difficulties with courage and adaptability.

Parental bonding sometimes influences how children perceive failure and setbacks. Parents who encourage problem-solving, persistence, and learning from mistakes help children build resilience by encouraging an optimistic mindset. When children are supported in exploring solutions and are reassured that mistakes are part of growth, they develop the belief that they are capable of overcoming difficulties. This supportive parenting style helps children build both emotional strength and practical coping skills, which are essential components of resilience, Luthar, Cicchetti, & Becker (2000). On the other hand, children who experience weak parental bonding, characterized by neglect, harsh criticism, or emotional unavailability, may struggle to develop resilience. Without a secure emotional base, they might feel overwhelmed by challenges, lack confidence in their ability to cope, and develop feelings of helplessness. These children may also have trouble seeking help when they need it, as they have not learned to trust in the availability of support from others.

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional Intelligence is the ability to perceive, understand and manage emotions effectively and influence emotion in oneself and others. Emotional intelligence focuses on cognitive abilities such as logical reasoning, memory and problem-solving skills; it mainly emphasizes on human ability to understand their emotion and that of others.

In 1990s, the concept of emotional intelligence first came into light through the work of psychologists Peter Salovey and John Mayer, and was later popularized by Daniel Golman.

According to Goleman, the main components of emotional intelligence are:

- Self - Awareness: Recognizing one's emotion and understanding its impact.
- Self - Regulation: It's the ability to manage one's own emotion and adapting to the changing environment.
- Motivation: Channelling emotion in towards a goal, emotional self-control, delaying gratification and shifting impulses.
- Empathy: Sensitivity to other's feelings and emotions. Understanding and considering other's feelings.
- Social-skills: Managing social relationships with others.

The theory on emotional intelligence given by Peter Salovey and John Mayer, (1990) is referred to as the Ability Model as it mainly portrays emotional intelligence as a set of skills or abilities that contribute to emotional reasoning and emotional processing. According to Mayer and Salovey, emotional intelligence involves the ability to perceive, understand, manage and use emotions to enhance thinking and personal growth. The four components of the Ability Model include – perceiving emotions, using emotion to facilitate thought, understanding emotions and managing emotions.

Bar-On (1997) explained emotional intelligence as an array of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate to them and cope with daily demands and pressure. The five constructs of the Bar-On model include –

1. Intrapersonal Skills which include Self-Regard that is understanding and accepting oneself, Emotional Self-Awareness that is recognizing one's emotions and Assertiveness which means expressing feelings and thoughts openly and defending rights and Independence which means self-reliance and autonomy and Self-Actualization that is pursuing of personal goals and fulfilling and achieving one's full potential.
2. Interpersonal Skills which include Empathy that is understanding the feelings of others, Social Responsibility which means working responsibly and showing concern for others and Interpersonal Relationships that is establishing and maintaining relationships.
3. Stress Management which includes Stress Tolerance that is coping effectively with stress and impulse Control which means resisting impulses and delaying gratification.
4. Adaptability which includes Reality Testing that is seeing things objectively, avoiding biases, Flexibility that is adapting emotions, thoughts, and behaviors to change and Problem-Solving which means identifying and solving personal and interpersonal problems.
5. General Mood which includes Optimism that is maintaining a positive attitudes and Happiness that is feeling content and maintaining emotional well-being.

The major focus will be on importance of emotional intelligence on young adults, while viewing this concept of emotional intelligence through the cognitive lens of Mayer and Salovey

or the personality-driven lens of Bar-On, we can clearly figure out some crucial role it plays in various situations, like:

- Workplace Success: Leaders with high EI inspire teams, manage conflict effectively, and build strong workplace cultures.

- Personal Relationships: Emotionally intelligent individuals communicate better, empathize with others, and build deeper connections.

- Mental Health: High EI supports resilience, stress management, and emotional well-being.

- Education: EI helps students handle academic pressures, collaborate effectively, and develop self-motivation.

Emotional intelligence and resilience are closely related concept, works together to help people navigate life's challenges. Emotional intelligence (EI) refers to the ability to understand and manage one's own emotions, as well as recognize and respond to the emotions of others. Resilience, on the other hand, is the ability to bounce back from adversity and keep moving forward after facing difficulties. Both of these concept goes hand in hand and relies on emotional awareness, self-control, and healthy relationships. With the following understandings we can explain how emotional intelligence can affect resilience –

- Emotional intelligence enhances self-awareness, thus when faced with adversity self-awareness help people manage their emotions rather than being overwhelmed by negative emotions which is important for bouncing back from setbacks.
- People with high emotional intelligence are better in self-regulation, this reduces impulsive reaction and help people think clearly during challenges, thus enhancing resilience.
- Emotional intelligence helps in building stronger relationships by fostering empathy and communication; strong social connection is a key factor in resilience.
- Emotional intelligence helps people assess situations rationally and help people find constructive solution to problem, making them more resilient.

These supportive relationships become a source of comfort and guidance during hard times, helping individuals bounce back faster. Knowing that others understand and care strengthens a person's belief that they can overcome challenges, reinforcing their resilience.

People with strong emotional intelligence are better equipped to handle stress and difficult situations because they can recognize what they're feeling and understand why they feel that way. This self-awareness allows them to process their emotions instead of ignoring or suppressing them. Resilient people don't avoid negative emotions and adverse situations—they face them with confidence, knowing they have the tools to handle them. Emotional intelligence helps develop these tools, such as calming oneself down when overwhelmed, staying positive during tough times, and asking for help when needed. When people can regulate their emotions, they're less likely to feel helpless in the face of adversity, which makes them more resilient.

In contrast, people with low emotional intelligence may struggle to cope with setbacks because they have difficulty understanding their own feelings or asking for help. Without emotional awareness, they may react impulsively, become overwhelmed by stress, or isolate themselves, which can make it harder to recover from challenges. This highlights how emotional intelligence acts as a protective factor, helping people stay emotionally balanced even when life feels uncertain or overwhelming.

Resilience

Resilience is the ability to bounce back from difficult situations, hardships, or failures and emerge stronger than before. It is an important quality that helps individuals, communities, and even organizations adapt to challenges, stress, or adversity, Ann Masten (2001). Resilience is not about avoiding problems, but more about facing them with courage, learning from the experiences, and using them to grow. It is the mental, emotional, and sometimes physical capacity to recover from setbacks and continue to pursue goals, despite the obstacles.

At its core, resilience is a combination of inner strength and external support. Inner strength refers to personal qualities such as self-confidence, emotional regulation, positive thinking, and problem-solving skills. External support includes the presence of caring relationships, whether from family, friends, or a supportive community. Both internal and external factors work together to help people build resilience, Reivich and Shatte (2002).

Life put us in various adverse situations, whether it is the loss of a loved one, academic failure, natural disasters, or personal disappointments, resilience help individuals to face these challenges and do not break them. They view these experiences as opportunities to learn and

grow and help them develop coping strategies and adopt a positive mindset, which allows them to overcome difficulties more effectively, Carol Dweck's (2006).

Resilience can be developed and strengthened over time. Factors that contribute to building resilience include developing a strong sense of purpose, maintaining healthy relationships, setting realistic goals, and practicing self-care. Emotional awareness, adaptability, and a sense of humour also play crucial roles. Resilient people are often optimistic, but their optimism is grounded in reality. They can understand their problems, take practical steps to address them, and believe in their ability to succeed.

In addition to individuals, communities and organizations can also demonstrate resilience, Werner & Smith (1992). A resilient community can recover from disasters like floods, earthquakes, or pandemics by coming together, supporting each other, and rebuilding stronger. Similarly, resilient organizations adapt to economic crises or changes in the market by innovating, staying flexible, and fostering teamwork.

Resilience is all about inner growth, learning from setbacks, and becoming stronger through challenges. It does not mean avoiding pain or hardship but developing the ability to navigate through them with courage, hope, and determination. Resilient individuals, can transform adversity into strength, making them better prepared to face future challenges. This quality is not only essential for personal well-being but also for creating strong, compassionate, and successful societies.

In conclusion, resilience is a key life skill that helps individuals and communities thrive despite adversity. It empowers people to keep going, no matter how tough life becomes, and to emerge from difficult experiences with greater wisdom, strength, and purpose.

Parental bonding, emotional intelligence and resilience are interconnected aspect of human development. Studying the influence of perceived parental bonding on emotional intelligence and resilience among young adults is important because it put light on the concept that how early relationship shapes emotional and psychological well-being and how it helps to deal and adapt with adverse situations later in life. Exploring these interconnections may help develop interventions and support system that can help in enhancing emotional and psychological development in young adults.

The aim of the present study is to find out the Influence of Perceived Parental Bonding on Emotional Intelligence and Resilience among Young Adults.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW

OF

LITERATURE

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Niazi et al., (2022) conducted a quantitative study to investigate the predictive role of parental bonding in university students' self-regulation, proactive attitude, and academic achievement. The research sample comprised 200 university students (100 males and 100 females) aged between 18 and 24 years. The study employed three standardized instruments: the *Parental Bonding Instrument* (Parker et al., 1979), the *Self-Regulation Scale* (Schwarzer, Diehl, & Schmitz, 1999), and the *Proactive Attitude Scale* (Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999).

The findings indicated significant positive correlations between self-regulation and proactive attitude, as well as between both variables and parental control from both mothers and fathers. Additionally, maternal control was positively associated with proactive attitude. Regression analyses further revealed that maternal control significantly predicted higher self-regulation, while paternal care negatively predicted self-regulation. Interestingly, maternal care was found to negatively predict proactive attitude. Independent sample t-tests demonstrated significant gender differences in academic performance (GPA) and perceptions of paternal care.

These results underscore the nuanced influence of parental bonding dimensions—specifically care and control from both parents—on students' self-regulatory capabilities, proactive dispositions, and academic success. The study highlights the importance of understanding parental roles in shaping developmental outcomes during emerging adulthood, particularly in academic environments.

Understanding the psychological well-being of young adults requires exploring the intricate dynamics between early familial relationships and internal psychological processes. Yamawaki et al., (2011) examined how self-esteem and life satisfaction mediate the impact of perceived parental bonding on mental health among Japanese university students. Drawing from a sample of 682 undergraduates, the researchers utilized structural equation modelling to test a model incorporating parental care, over-protection, self-esteem, life satisfaction, and psychological well-being. Findings suggests that self-esteem fully mediated the relationship between parental bonding and mental health, while life satisfaction served as an additional indirect pathway for the effects of parental care. Individuals who perceived their parents as warm and nurturing reported higher self-worth and satisfaction with life, which in turn contributed to better overall mental health. Interestingly, over-protective parenting was significantly linked to lower self-esteem but did not predict life satisfaction.

The study supports previous research putting light on the long-term psychological influence of parenting styles. It further highlights the significance of positive self-regard and subjective well-being as key factors in maintaining mental health. Although cultural nuances such as the high academic pressure in Japan were considered, the core mechanisms identified suggest cross-cultural relevance.

Yamawaki et al., (2011) research underscores the importance of fostering healthy parental bonds and nurturing self-esteem and satisfaction in life during young adulthood. These findings have meaningful implications for counsellors and mental health professionals working to support student populations facing psychological stressors.

Wilhelm et al., (2016) explored the long-term influence of parental bonding on adult attachment styles using two four-category models. Drawing from a longitudinal cohort, the study assessed participants' early parenting experiences using the Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI) and evaluated adult attachment through the Relationship Questionnaire (RQ) 35 years later. The findings highlighted significant associations between specific parenting styles and adult attachment outcomes, with notable gender differences. For instance, women who reported optimal maternal care tended to exhibit secure attachment, while neglectful parenting in men was linked to preoccupied attachment. Interestingly, maternal control appeared more impactful than paternal control in shaping adult relational patterns. The study highlights the predictive value of early caregiving in adult psychological functioning and supports the notion that parenting characterized by both high care and balanced control fosters healthier attachments. These insights reinforce the relevance of gender-sensitive, attachment-informed practices in psychological and developmental interventions.

Skeryte-Kazlauskiene et al. (2015) investigated the long-term impact of parental bonding on resilience in adulthood, focusing on three dimensions: care, authoritarianism, and behavioural control. Using retrospective assessments from a diverse sample of 745 Lithuanian adults, the study found that higher parental care was positively associated with adult resilience, while authoritarian parenting showed a negative relationship. Interestingly, behavioural control (protectiveness) had no significant impact on resilience outcomes. The results also indicated that while parental care remains relevant across the lifespan, the influence of authoritarianism diminishes with age. This research extends existing resilience literature, which typically focuses on children, by demonstrating that early caregiving experiences continue to shape psychological well-being into later life. These findings suggest that fostering warmth and

autonomy in parenting may support lifelong resilience, reinforcing the developmental value of early emotional bonds. The study offers important implications for resilience-focused interventions and underscores the enduring relevance of childhood experiences.

Alexander et al (2021) explored how parental overprotection affects emotional intelligence (EI) in young adults. Using a sample of 90 participants aged 20–40, the study employed the Parental Bonding Instrument and an Emotional Intelligence Scale to assess correlations. Findings revealed a significant negative relationship between overprotection by both parents and all five domains of EI—self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, social awareness, and social skills. Maternal overprotection most strongly predicted deficits in self-regulation, while paternal overprotection most impacted self-awareness. The authors emphasize that excessive parental control, though well-intentioned, hinders emotional maturity and social functioning. These results align with earlier research linking overprotective parenting to anxiety, reduced autonomy, and poor emotional regulation. The study suggests that fostering balanced parental involvement, which promotes autonomy and warmth, is crucial in developing emotionally intelligent adults. Its culturally specific findings also underline the importance of context-sensitive parenting interventions within the Indian population.

Seyrek and Ersanlı (2021) investigated how remembered parental care influences psychological resilience among university students aged 18 to 26. Utilizing the Parental Bonding Instrument and the Resilience Scale for Adults, the study revealed a moderate positive correlation between remembered maternal and paternal care and psychological resilience. The findings also showed that perceived socioeconomic status significantly impacted both remembered parental care and resilience levels. Interestingly, gender differences emerged in perceptions of paternal care, with female participants reporting higher levels than males. The study emphasized the importance of warm, accepting, and supportive parenting in fostering resilience, especially in environments where young adults face increased social and academic stress. It also highlighted that early caregiving experiences can shape long-term emotional and coping capacities. These results underscore the need for parental education on nurturing resilience and suggest that psychological support services at universities should consider students' early familial dynamics in their interventions.

Cahyono and Julom (2015) investigated how seminarians' perceptions of parental bonding relate to emotional intelligence and spiritual well-being. Using the Parental Bonding Instrument, Bar-On Emotional Intelligence Scale, and Spiritual Well-being Scale, the study

examined 134 male seminarians in Indonesia. Results revealed that perceived maternal overprotection had a significant negative correlation with emotional intelligence, particularly in stress management and adaptability. Meanwhile, perceived maternal care was positively linked to certain aspects of emotional intelligence and spiritual well-being. However, no significant relationship was found between overall emotional intelligence and spiritual well-being. Notably, paternal overprotection also showed a negative influence on emotional intelligence. These findings reinforce attachment theory by emphasizing the long-term psychological effects of early caregiving. The study highlights that emotionally supportive and balanced parenting enhances emotional and spiritual development, especially in religious formation settings. It also underscores the importance of integrating family dynamics into educational and pastoral programs for holistic development.

Tanushree and Simon (2020) examined how perceived parental care and overprotection relate to emotional intelligence (EI) among Indian undergraduate students. Using self-report measures, they found a significant positive correlation between paternal care and EI, and a negative correlation between paternal overprotection and EI. Interestingly, no significant associations were observed between maternal care or overprotection and students' emotional intelligence. These findings suggest that paternal parenting styles play a more influential role in shaping emotional awareness and regulation in Indian college students than maternal styles. The study contributes to the limited research on emotional intelligence in the Indian context, particularly among young adults. It supports the notion that early caregiving experiences—especially perceptions of autonomy and support—impact emotional functioning later in life. The results advocate for fostering balanced and nurturing paternal involvement as a pathway to enhance emotional competencies among youth.

Parental bonding plays a crucial role in shaping children's psychological well-being, with resilience and social support acting as key mediating variables. Research indicates that secure parent-child attachment fosters emotional regulation, self-esteem, and coping strategies, which in turn promote resilience in children (Möhler et al., 2008). The presence of strong social support networks further enhances the positive effects of parental bonding by buffering stress and contributing to a child's adaptive functioning (Werner & Smith, 1992). Studies suggest that when children perceive their parents as responsive and supportive, they are more likely to develop emotional strength and maintain positive mental health outcomes (Arslan, 2016). Moreover, resilience is not only influenced by internal factors but also by external protective factors like nurturing relationships and community support systems. Overall, the literature

emphasizes the interplay between parent-child bonding, resilience, and social support in promoting holistic well-being among children.

Emotional intelligence (EI) and resilience are critical psychological constructs influencing the well-being of young adults. EI, defined as the ability to recognize, manage, and utilize emotions effectively (Salovey & Mayer, 1990), has been positively associated with adaptive coping strategies and psychological resilience. Resilience, the capacity to recover from adversity, is considered essential for mental health and emotional regulation. Sehrawat and Simon (2021) explored the relationship between EI and resilience among Indian young adults, finding a significant positive correlation between the two variables. Their study highlighted that higher emotional intelligence is linked to greater resilience, though gender differences in these traits were not statistically significant. Previous research also supports this connection, suggesting that EI can buffer stress and enhance adaptive functioning (Sarrionandia et al., 2018; Trigueros et al., 2019). These findings emphasize the importance of promoting emotional skills to foster resilience and psychological well-being in youth.

Parental bonding significantly shapes an individual's emotional and social development, particularly during adolescence. According to Sultan, Rafiq, and Kanwal (2019), emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between parental bonding and social adjustment. Secure parental care fosters emotional intelligence, which in turn enhances a student's ability to adapt socially. Emotional intelligence, defined as the capacity to perceive, regulate, and manage emotions effectively, contributes to social competence and adjustment in academic and interpersonal domains. The study revealed that maternal and paternal care positively influenced both emotional intelligence and social adjustment, while parental overprotection showed negative associations. Emotional intelligence emerged as a significant mediator, suggesting that emotionally intelligent individuals are better equipped to navigate social environments. These findings align with prior research emphasizing the importance of parenting styles and emotional support in adolescent development (Alegre & Benson, 2010; Frederickson et al., 2012). Enhancing emotional intelligence through supportive parenting may thus promote healthier social functioning.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

METHODOLOGY

Aim: The aim of the present study is to find out the Influence of Perceived Parental Bonding on Emotional Intelligence and Resilience among Young Adults.

Objectives:

- To examine the relationship between mother care, mother overprotection, father care and father overprotection and emotional intelligence among young adults.
- To examine the relationship between mother care, mother overprotection, father care and father overprotection on resilience among young adults.
- To analyse the influence of gender on emotional intelligence among young adults.
- To analyse the influence of gender on resilience among young adults.

Hypothesis:

- H_{01}: There is no significant relationship between mother care and emotional intelligence among young adults.
- H_{02}: There is no significant relationship between mother overprotection and emotional intelligence among young adults.
- H_{03}: There is no significant relationship between father care and emotional intelligence among young adults.
- H_{04}: There is no significant relationship between father overprotection and emotional intelligence among young adults.
- H_{05}: There is no significant relationship between mother care and resilience among young adults.
- H_{06}: There is no significant relationship between mother overprotection and resilience among young adults.
- H_{07}: There is no significant relationship between father care and resilience among young adults.
- H_{08}: There is no significant relationship between father overprotection and resilience among young adults.
- H_{09}: There will be no significant difference in emotional intelligence among young adults based on gender.

- H_{010}: There will be no significant difference in resilience among young adults based on gender.

Description Of Instruments:

Parental Bonding Instrument

An important contribution to the study of parental bonding is the development of Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI) by Gordon Parker and colleagues in 1979. This instrument help in the improvisation of the field by providing a standardized measure of parental bonding from the ward's perspective. It consists of two important dimension that includes care and overprotection; care is the extent to which parents were perceived as warm, nurturing and emotionally available and overprotection is the degree to which parents were intrusive, controlling or excessively protective. Parental Bonding Instrument mainly identifies four bonding styles, those are – high care and high overprotection, high care low overprotection, low care low overprotection, low care high overprotection. The scale consists of 25 items for mother and 25 items for father. It has two subscales, care (items 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 11, 12, 14, 16, 17, 18, 24) and overprotection (items 3, 7, 8, 9, 10, 13, 15, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 25). The PBI has internal consistency, with split half reliability coefficients of .88 for care and .74 for overprotection, as well as good stability, with 3-week test-retest correlations of .76 for care and .63 for overprotection. In addition, for the PBI concurrent validity, scores from the interview and scores derived from the parental bonding instrument factors were also related, showing care value of 0.77 and overprotection 0.50. It is scored on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (very unlike) to 4 (very like). Items 2, 3, 4, 7, 14, 15, 16, 18, 21, 22, 24, 25 are reversed-scored. The 12 items of the care subscale allow a maximum score of 48 and the 13 items of the overprotection subscale allow a maximum score of 52 (Parker et al.,1979).

Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test

Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test is an English version of a self-report inventory containing 33 items with four dimensions: perception of emotions, managing own emotions, managing others' emotions, and utilization of emotions. This instrument was developed by Schutte et al. (2009) with Cronbach's alpha (CA) of 0.87 and test–retest reliability of 0.78. each of the 33 items using a five-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Scoring was done by summing the scores of all items except answers to items 5, 28, and 33, which were reverse scored. Since it contains 33 items, the total lowest score was 33 and total maximum score was 165. A higher score indicated higher emotional intelligence. The grand total of all 33 items were computed as the total score. Four scores of the four sub-scales were also calculated, i.e. Perception of emotions (which included item numbers 5, 9, 15, 18, 19, 22, 25, 29, 32, 33), Managing one's own emotions (which included item numbers 2, 3, 10, 12, 14, 21, 23, 28, 31), Managing others' emotions (which included item numbers 1, 4, 11, 13, 16, 24, 26, 30) and Utilization of emotions (which included item numbers 6, 7, 8, 17, 20, 27).

Brief Resilience Scale

The scale developed by Smith et al. (2008) was created to measure the resilience of individuals. The BPRS is a five-point Likert-type measurement tool consisting of six items. High scores obtained from the scale indicate high resilience. The development of the scale and validity and reliability studies were carried out on four different study groups, the first two groups consisted of university students, and the next two groups consisted of cardiac and fibromyalgia patients. Exploratory factor analysis was performed to determine the construct validity of the scale; and as a result of the analysis, a single-factor structure explaining 61%, 61%, 57%, and 67% of the total variance was obtained for four different sample groups, respectively. The factor loadings of the scale items ranged between 0.68 and 0.91. The reliability of the scale was calculated by internal consistency and test-retest methods; the internal consistency reliability coefficient was between 0.80 and 0.91. The test-retest reliability coefficient was between 0.62 and 0.69. Items 2, 4, and 6 are reversed scored. The BRS is scored by finding the mean of the six items. The following instructions are used to administer the scale: "Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements by using the following scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree."

Sampling Procedure: Purposive Sampling

Sample Size: 65

Inclusion Criteria: Individuals in the age group 18-25 years, both boys and girls.

Exclusion Criteria: Individuals below the age of 18 years and above the age of 25 years.

Individuals having any psychiatric disorder.

Individuals those who reside outside West Bengal.

In total 70 data was collected out of which 5 are excluded because it did not meet the inclusion and exclusion criteria.

Data Analysis:

For analysing data, descriptive statistics, and Correlation analysis, T-test and Mann-Whitney U Test were used.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION

RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION

Descriptives												
		PB_Mother Care		PB_Mother Overprotection		PB_ Father Care		PB_Father Overprotection		EI		Resilience	
N		65		65		65		65		65		65	
Mean		27.5		13.4		23.9		12.6		121		3.15	
Median		29		12		26		11		122		3.33	
Mode		33.0		9.00		26.0	[a]	7.00		124		3.00	[a]
Standard deviation		6.86		7.26		7.87		7.94		15.0		0.771	
Minimum		1		1		3		1		82		1.00	
Maximum		36		38		36		32		158		4.67	
Shapiro-Wilk W		0.900		0.945		0.947		0.960		0.995		0.961	
Shapiro-Wilk p		< .001		0.006		0.008		0.033		0.995		0.038	
[a] More than one mode exists, only the first is reported													

Table 1: It represents the sample size (N=65) including both males and females, the descriptive statistics (mean, median and mode and standard deviation) for parental bonding mother care (PB_Mother Care), parental bonding mother overprotection (PB_Mother Overprotection), parental bonding father care (PB_Father Care), parental bonding father overprotection (PB_Father Overprotection). The Shapiro-Wilk p value for parental bonding mother care (PB_Mother Care) is p<.001, parental bonding mother overprotection (PB_Mother Overprotection) is p=0.006, parental bonding father care (PB_Father Care) is p=0.008, parental bonding father overprotection (PB_Father Overprotection) is p=0.033, all these p values is below 0.05 which suggest these is a non-normal distribution. The Shapiro-Wilk p value for resilience is p=0.038 which is also below 0.05 and suggest a non-normal distribution. The Shapiro-Wilk p value for emotional intelligence (EI) is p=0.995 which is also below 0.05 and suggest a normal distribution. Since, majority of the above are non-normal distribution thus we are opting for non-parametric statistics.

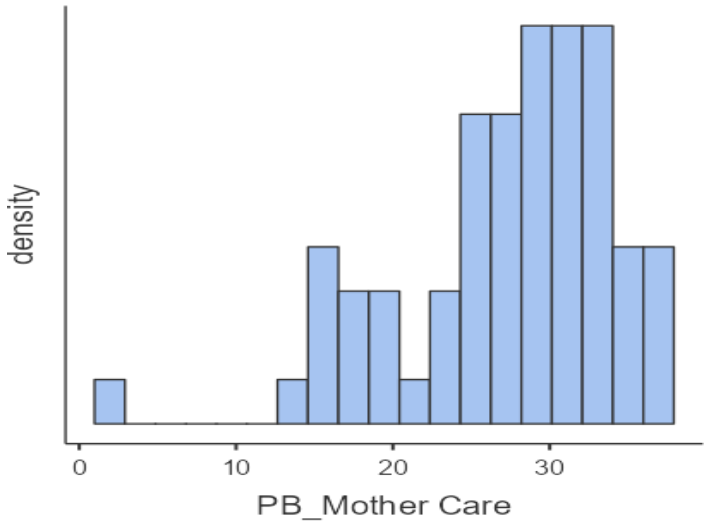

Table 2: It represents a histogram displaying the distribution of a variable labelled "PB_Mother Care." The y-axis represents density, and the x-axis represents the values of "PB_Mother Care," ranging from 0 to 30. The histogram shows the frequency of data points within different intervals along the x-axis. Most of the data points appear to be concentrated between concentrated between 25 and 35 on the "PB_Mother Care" scale.

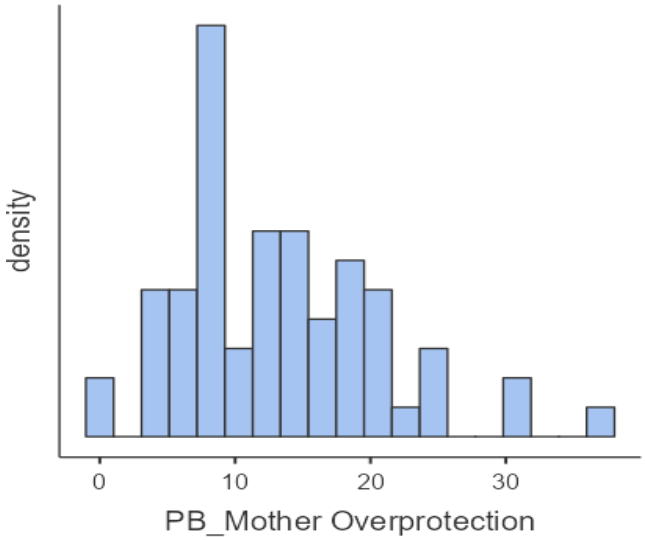

Table 3: It represents histogram representing the distribution of a variable labelled "PB_Mother Overprotection." The x-axis represents the degree of mother overprotection, ranging from 0 to 30, while the y-axis represents the density, indicating the frequency or proportion of observations within each bin. The histogram shows that the distribution is skewed to the right, with the highest density of observations occurring between 5 and 10 on the "PB_Mother Overprotection" scale. The density gradually decreases as the level of overprotection increases, indicating that fewer participants exhibit higher levels of mother overprotection.

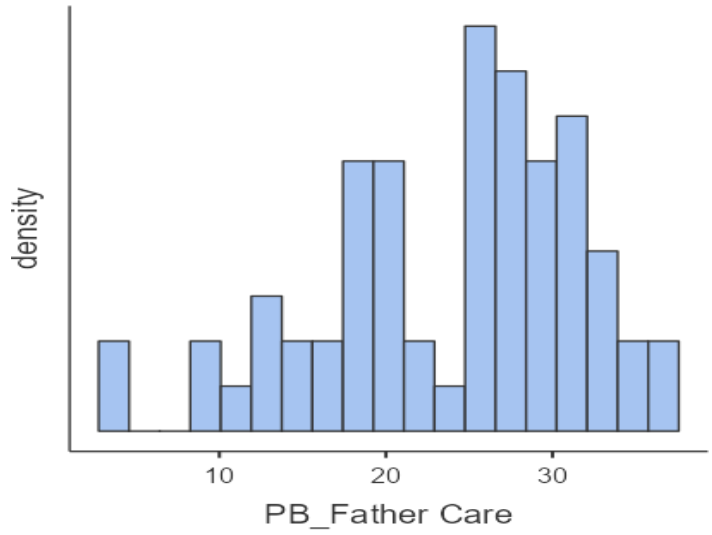

Table 4: It represents, histogram that represents the distribution of a variable labelled "PB_Father Care." The y-axis is labelled "density," and the x-axis represents values ranging from approximately 5 to 35. The histogram consists of vertical bars, with the height of each bar indicating the frequency or density of observations within the corresponding interval on the x-axis.The distribution appears to be somewhat skewed to the right, with a higher concentration of values between 25 and 30. There are fewer observations at the lower end of the scale (around 5-10) and a moderate number in the range of 15-25. The tallest bar is around 28, indicating the highest density of data points in that range.

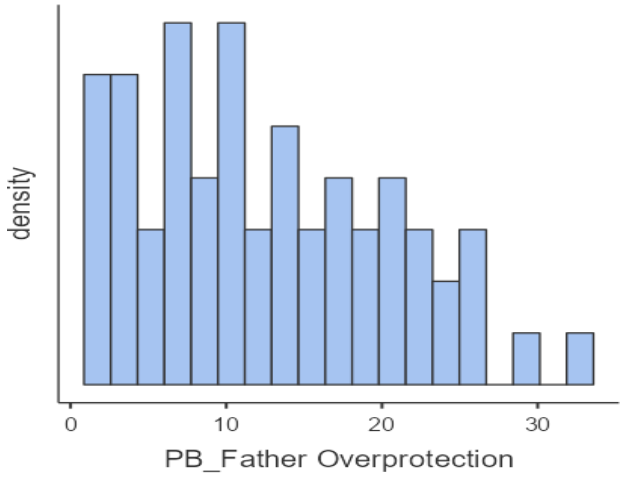

Table 5: It represents histogram displaying the density distribution of "PB_Father Overprotection" scores. The x-axis represents the level of paternal overprotection, ranging from 0 to 30, while the y-axis represents the density. The histogram indicates that the majority of scores are concentrated between 5 and 15, with a peak around 10, suggesting that most participants have a moderate level of perceived paternal overprotection. There's a gradual decrease in density as the score increases beyond 15, with very few scores above 25, indicating that high levels of paternal overprotection are less common in the sample.

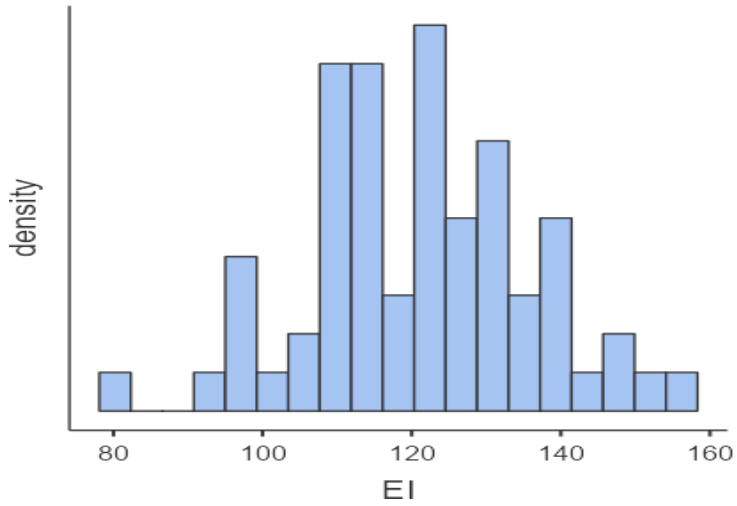

Table 6: It represents histogram displaying the distribution of a variable labelled "EI" with corresponding density values. The horizontal axis (EI) ranges from 80 to 160, while the vertical axis represents density. The histogram bars indicate the frequency or density of observations within specific intervals along the EI scale. It appears that the distribution is somewhat skewed to the right, with the highest density of observations occurring between EI values of approximately 110 and 130. The data might represent the ages of participants in a study or some other measured variable where the majority of values cluster around a central range with fewer values at the extremes.

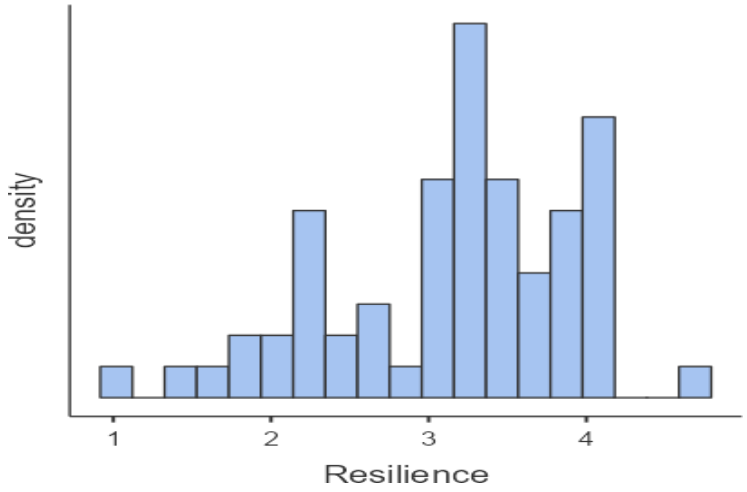

Table 7: It represents histogram illustrating the distribution of "Resilience" scores. The x-axis represents resilience, ranging from 1 to 4, while the y-axis represents density, indicating the frequency of each score. The histogram reveals that scores around 3 have the highest density, suggesting that most participants in the study have moderate resilience levels. There is a noticeable peak at 3, with a smaller peak around 4, and fewer scores at 1 and 2. This distribution could indicate a generally resilient population, with fewer individuals at the lower and higher ends of the resilience scale.

Correlation Matrix						
			PB_Mother Care		EI	
PB_Mother Care		Spearman's rho	—			
		df	—			
		p-value	—			
EI		Spearman's rho	0.315		—	
		df	63		—	
		p-value	0.011		—	

Table 8: It represents the Spearman correlation between mother care (PB_Mother Care) and Emotional Intelligence (EI). The Spearman's rho value is 0.315 and the p value is 0.011 which is less than 0.05 and indicate that it is significant at the 0.05 level and the null hypothesis H_{01} is rejected, there is a significant relationship between mother care and emotional intelligence. There is a positive correlation between parental mother care and emotional intelligence.

Correlation Matrix						
			PB_Mother Overprotection		EI	
PB_Mother Overprotection		Spearman's rho	—			
		df	—			
		p-value	—			
EI		Spearman's rho	-0.085		—	
		df	63		—	
		p-value	0.502		—	

Table 9: It represents Spearman's correlation between mother overprotection (PB_Mother Overprotection) and emotional intelligence (EI). The Spearman's rho value is -0.085. The p value is 0.502 which is greater than 0.05, so it is not significant at 0.05 level, and null hypothesis H_{02} is accepted. There is no significant relationship between mother overprotection and emotional intelligence among young adults.

Correlation Matrix						
			PB_Father Care		EI	
PB_Father Care		Spearman's rho	—			
		df	—			
		p-value	—			
EI		Spearman's rho	0.159		—	
		df	63		—	
		p-value	0.205		—	

Table 10: It represents Spearman's correlation between father care (PB_Father Care) and emotional intelligence (EI). The Spearman's rho value is 0.159. The p value is 0.205 which is greater than 0.05, so it is not significant at 0.05 level, and null hypothesis H_{03} is accepted. There is no significant relationship between father care and emotional intelligence among young adults.

Correlation Matrix					
		PB_Father Overprotection		EI	
PB_Father Overprotection	Spearman's rho	—			
	df	—			
	p-value	—			
EI	Spearman's rho	-0.178		—	
	df	63		—	
	p-value	0.156		—	

Table 11: It represents Spearman's correlation between father overprotection (PB_Father Overprotection) and emotional intelligence (EI). The Spearman's rho value is -0.178. The p value is 0.156 which is greater than 0.05, so it is not significant at 0.05 level, and null hypothesis H_{04} is accepted. There is no significant relationship between father overprotection and emotional intelligence among young adults.

Correlation Matrix					
		PB_Mother Care		Resilience	
PB_Mother Care	Spearman's rho	—			
	df	—			
	p-value	—			
Resilience	Spearman's rho	0.124		—	
	df	63		—	
	p-value	0.326		—	

Table 12: It represents Spearman's correlation between mother care (PB_Mother Care) and Resilience. The Spearman's rho value is 0.124. The p value is 0.326 which is greater than 0.05, so it is not significant at 0.05 level, and null hypothesis H_{05} is accepted. There is no significant relationship between mother care and Resilience among young adults.

Correlation Matrix					
		PB_Mother Overprotection		Resilience	
PB_Mother Overprotection	Spearman's rho	—			
	df	—			
	p-value	—			
Resilience	Spearman's rho	-0.230		—	
	df	63		—	
	p-value	0.065		—	

Table 13: It represents Spearman's correlation between mother overprotection (PB_Mother Overprotection) and Resilience. The Spearman's rho value is -0.230. The p value is 0.065 which is greater than 0.05, so it is not significant at 0.05 level, and null hypothesis H_{06} is accepted. There is no significant relationship between mother overprotection and resilience among young adults.

Correlation Matrix					
		PB_Father Care		Resilience	
PB_Father Care	Spearman's rho	—			
	df	—			
	p-value	—			
Resilience	Spearman's rho	0.213		—	
	df	63		—	
	p-value	0.088		—	

Table 14: It represents Spearman's correlation between father care (PB_Father Care) and Resilience. The Spearman's rho value is 0.213. The p value is 0.088 which is greater than 0.05, so it is not significant at 0.05 level, and null hypothesis H_{07} is accepted. There is no significant relationship between father care and resilience among young adults.

Correlation Matrix			
		PB_Father Overprotection	Resilience
PB_Father Overprotection	Spearman's rho	—	
	df	—	
	p-value	—	
Resilience	Spearman's rho	-0.203	—
	df	63	—
	p-value	0.104	—

Table 15: It represents Spearman's correlation between father overprotection (PB_Father Overprotection) and Resilience. The Spearman's rho value is -0.203. The p value is 0.104 which is greater than 0.05, so it is not significant at 0.05 level, and null hypothesis H_{08} is accepted. There is no significant relationship between father overprotection and resilience among young adults.

Independent Samples T-Test				
		Statistic	df	p
EI	Student's t	1.65	63.0	0.103
Note. H_a $\mu_{Female} \neq \mu_{Male}$				

Table 16: It represents T test to find gender-based difference for emotional intelligence. The p value is 0.103 which is greater than 0.05, thus the null hypothesis H_{09} is accepted and there will be no significant difference in emotional intelligence among young adults based on gender.

Independent Samples T-Test			
		Statistic	p
Resilience	Mann-Whitney U	505	0.777
Note. H_a $\mu_{Female} \neq \mu_{Male}$			

Table 17: It represents Mann-Whitney U test to find gender-based difference for resilience. The p value is 0.777 which is greater than 0.05, thus the null hypothesis H_{010} is accepted and there will be no significant difference in resilience among young adults based on gender.

- H_{01}: There is no significant relationship between mother care and emotional intelligence among young adults. - Rejected
- H_{02}: There is no significant relationship between mother overprotection and emotional intelligence among young adults. - Accepted
- H_{03}: There is no significant relationship between father care and emotional intelligence among young adults. -Accepted
- H_{04}: There is no significant relationship between father overprotection and emotional intelligence among young adults. - Accepted
- H_{05}: There is no significant relationship between mother care and resilience among young adults. - Accepted
- H_{06}: There is no significant relationship between mother overprotection and resilience among young adults. - Accepted
- H_{07}: There is no significant relationship between father care and resilience among young adults. - Accepted
- H_{08}: There is no significant relationship between father overprotection and resilience among young adults. - Accepted
- H_{09}: There will be no significant difference in emotional intelligence among young adults based on gender. – Accepted
- H_{010}: There will be no significant difference in resilience among young adults based on gender. – Accepted

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

DISCUSSION

To analyze the influence of perceived parental bonding on emotional intelligence and resilience among young adults a sample of 65 participants both males and females within the age range of 18- 25 were selected. The mean, median, mode and standard deviation of mother care are 27.5, 29, 33.0, 6.86 respectively. The mean, median, mode and standard deviation of mother overprotection are 13.4, 12, 9.00, 7.26 respectively. The mean, median, mode and standard deviation of father care are 23.9, 26, 26.0, 7.87 respectively. The mean, median, mode and standard deviation of father overprotection are 13.4, 12, 9.00, 7.26 respectively. The mean, median, mode and standard deviation of emotional intelligence 121, 122, 124, 15.0 respectively. The mean, median, mode and standard deviation of 3.15, 3.33, 3.00, 0.771 respectively.

The correlation between mother care (PB_Mother Care) and Emotional Intelligence (EI) was found using Spearman correlation matrix. It was found that there is a significant positive correlation between mother care and emotional intelligence ($p<0.05$), that means the null hypothesis that is, there is no significant relationship between mother care and emotional intelligence is rejected. This shows with the increase of mother care, there is an increase in emotional intelligence. A responsive, emotionally attuned mother model how to identify and label emotions. Frequent emotional interactions with the children help children learn to read facial expressions, tone of voice, and body language. If a mother validates the child's feelings, the child becomes better at recognizing their own emotions accurately. Supportive maternal care teaches emotional regulation through soothing and guidance. Children learn coping strategies by observing how their mother handles stress and disappointment. Regular care builds a sense of security, which reduces emotional volatility. A mother who shows empathy and responsiveness attitude like how to be empathetic toward others. Secure attachment formed through maternal care enhances trust and the ability to form healthy relationships. Social referencing helps children learn appropriate emotional responses. Mothers who encourage emotional expression help children use emotions constructively. Consistent with the previous literature, Sarwat et al. (2019) found that mother care predicted the emotional intelligence. Similarly, in the present study, the mother care received from the parent was found to be significantly linked to perceiving emotions, understanding emotions, and regulating emotions.

The correlation between mother overprotection (PB_Mother Overprotection) and Emotional Intelligence (EI) was found using Spearman correlation matrix. It was found that there is a no significant correlation between mother overprotection and emotional intelligence ($p>0.05$), that means the null hypothesis that is, there is no significant relationship between mother overprotection and emotional intelligence is accepted. One possible reason maternal overprotection may not significantly influence emotional intelligence (EI) is that overprotection tends to limit autonomy rather than emotional learning. Emotional intelligence can develop through other sources like peer relationships, school experiences, media exposure, and even internal reflection, regardless of how overprotective a parent may be. A mother can be overprotective yet still emotionally available and nurturing towards the child. If a child feels loved and heard, they may still learn how to process emotions effectively. This finding is in line with the study of Tanushree and Soumya (2020), which reported no significant correlation between maternal overprotection and EI in their study.

The correlation between father care (PB_Father Care) and Emotional Intelligence (EI) was found using Spearman correlation matrix. It was found that there is a no significant correlation between father overprotection and emotional intelligence ($p>0.05$), that means the null hypothesis that is, there is no significant relationship between father care and emotional intelligence is accepted. Father care is sometimes found to be not significantly correlated with emotional intelligence due to traditional parenting roles, where fathers are often less involved in emotional caregiving compared to mothers. Emotional intelligence is strongly shaped by early emotional bonding, which is usually more associated with the primary caregiver, often the mother. As a result, the emotional influence of fathers may appear weaker in some studies, especially if their involvement is limited. However, this does not mean father care is unimportant—it may simply be underrepresented in research. This finding is consistent with the findings of Stefanus.et.al. (2015), which also reported there is no significant correlation between perceived paternal care and emotional intelligence.

The correlation between father overprotection (PB_Father Overprotection) and Emotional Intelligence (EI) was found using Spearman correlation matrix. It was found that there is no significant correlation between father overprotection and emotional intelligence ($p>0.05$), that means the null hypothesis that is, there is no significant relationship between father

overprotection and emotional intelligence is accepted. Paternal overprotection may not significantly influence emotional intelligence (EI) because emotional intelligence is shaped more by emotional experiences, expression, and open communication than by protective behavior alone. This finding is consistent with the findings of Stefanus et.al. (2015), which also reported there is no significant correlation between perceived paternal overprotection and emotional intelligence.

The correlation between mother care (PB_Mother Care) and Resilience was found using Spearman correlation matrix. It was found that there is a no significant correlation between mother care and resilience ($p>0.05$, that means the null hypothesis that is, there is no significant relationship between mother care and resilience is accepted. On one hand, some may argue that resilience—the ability to recover from stress or adversity—is influenced more by internal traits or broader environmental factors than by paternal care alone. Factors such as genetics, peer relationships, life experiences, and maternal or community support can also significantly shape a person's resilience. Even individuals with little or no paternal involvement can develop strong resilience due to other protective influences in their environment. On the other hand, research in developmental psychology often shows that the role of a mother can have a meaningful impact on a child's emotional and psychological development. Positive maternal involvement which is characterized by emotional warmth, availability, and support—has been linked to higher self-esteem, better coping mechanisms, and stronger problem-solving skills in children, all of which contribute to resilience. Thus, completely denying any correlation might overlook important nuances. According to Ozgure et.al. (2021) there is a moderately positive relationship between the remembered care of the mother and psychological resilience; this finding is not in line with the findings of the present study because the study faced some limitations like small sample size, qualitative data only and time constraints.

The correlation between mother overprotection (PB_Mother Overprotection) and Resilience was found using Spearman correlation matrix. It was found that there is a no significant correlation between mother care and resilience ($p>0.05$), that means the null hypothesis that is, there is no significant relationship between mother overprotection and resilience is accepted. Mother overprotection may not affect resilience because resilience is influenced by many factors beyond parenting style. Personal traits like optimism, problem-solving skills, and support from peers or teachers can help individuals cope with challenges. While overprotection

may limit independence, it can also create a safe, nurturing environment that strengthens emotional security. This support may boost confidence and self-worth, helping a person stay strong during tough times. Additionally, as individuals grow, they gain new experiences that build resilience, regardless of early parenting. A study by Skerytė-Kazlauskienė et al. (2015) examined various dimensions of parental bonding, including maternal overprotectiveness, and their impact on adult resilience, it did not specifically report on the direct relationship between maternal overprotectiveness and resilience.

The correlation between father care (PB_Father Care) and Resilience was found using Spearman correlation matrix. It was found that there is a no significant correlation between father care and resilience ($p>0.05$), that means the null hypothesis that is, there is no significant relationship between father care and resilience is accepted. On one hand, some may argue that resilience—the ability to recover from stress or adversity—is influenced more by internal traits or broader environmental factors than by paternal care alone. Factors such as genetics, peer relationships, life experiences, and maternal or community support can also significantly shape a person's resilience. In such cases, even individuals with little or no paternal involvement can develop strong resilience due to other protective influences in their environment. On the other hand, research in developmental psychology often shows that the role of a mother can have a meaningful impact on a child's emotional and psychological development. Positive paternal involvement which is again characterized by emotional warmth, availability, and support—has been linked to higher self-esteem, better coping mechanisms, and stronger problem-solving skills in children, all of which contribute to resilience. Thus, completely denying any correlation might overlook important nuances. According to Ozgur et.al, (2021) there is a moderately positive relationship between the remembered care of the father and psychological resilience; this finding is not in line with the findings of the present study because the study faced some limitations like small sample size, qualitative data only and time constraints.

The correlation between father overprotection (PB_Father Overprotection) and Resilience was found using Spearman correlation matrix. It was found that there is a no significant correlation between father overprotection and resilience ($p>0.05$), that means the null hypothesis that is, there is no significant relationship between father care and resilience is accepted. Paternal overprotection may not affect resilience because such behavior might not significantly shape an individual's

coping skills or emotional strength. Unlike supportive care, overprotection can limit a child's opportunities to face challenges independently. However, its impact may be less influential if the father's role is perceived as less emotionally central or if other protective factors (like maternal care or peer support) compensate. Thus, its influence on long-term resilience could be minimal or indirect. A study by Skerytė-Kazlauskienė et al. (2015) examined various dimensions of parental bonding, including paternal overprotectiveness, and their impact on adult resilience, was found to be negatively associated with resilience in adulthood, it did not specifically report on the direct relationship between paternal overprotectiveness and resilience.

The T test was used to find gender-based difference for emotional intelligence. The $p>0.05$, thus the null hypothesis is accepted and there will be no significant difference in emotional intelligence among young adults based on gender. Gender might not significantly affect emotional intelligence (EI) because EI is more influenced by individual personality traits, life experiences, and emotional awareness than by biological sex. Both males and females are capable of developing emotional skills like empathy, self-regulation, and social awareness through learning and practice. The finding of this research is in line with the finding of the study by Sehrawat & Simon (2021), which also state that there is no significant difference in emotional intelligence base on gender.

The Mann Whitney U test was used to find gender-based difference for resilience. The $p>0.05$, thus the null hypothesis is accepted and there will be no significant difference in resilience among young adults based on gender. Resilience does not differ based on gender because it is shaped by personal experiences, coping skills, and support systems, rather than biological sex. Both male and female, have the capacity to develop resilience through challenges, relationships, and learned behaviors. Resilience is more about how individuals respond to adversity and manage stress, which is influenced by mindset and external factors, rather than being inherently linked to gender. The finding of this research is in line with the finding of the study by Sehrawat & Simon (2021), which also states that there is no significant difference in resilience based on gender.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

LIMITATION

SCOPE

APPLICABILITY

CONCLUSION

The aim of the present study was to find out the influence of perceived parental bonding on emotional intelligence and resilience among young adults. The result shows that there is a significant positive correlation between mother care and emotional intelligence. There is no significant correlation between mother overprotection and emotional intelligence, father care and emotional intelligence and father overprotection and emotional intelligence. There is no significant correlation between mother care and resilience, father care and resilience and father overprotection and resilience. There is no significant difference in emotional intelligence and resilience among young adults based on gender. The positive link between maternal care and emotional intelligence is consistent with previous findings. The lack of association between maternal overprotection and emotional intelligence is in line with the conclusions drawn by other study. The non-significant relationship between paternal care and emotional intelligence echoes with the findings of other studies. In terms of resilience, the absence of significant correlations with any parental bonding dimensions indicate that resilience may be shaped more by personal traits and external environmental factors than by early parental behaviors. Lastly, the lack of gender differences in both emotional intelligence and resilience mirrors the findings of other study, this suggest that these psychological traits are more dependent on individual experiences and coping strategies than on biological sex. Overall, this study highlights the subtle role of perceived parental bonding in the emotional and psychological development of young adults, while also pointing to the broader context in which such development occurs. Future research may benefit from larger sample sizes and longitudinal methods to further explore these relationships across different stages of life.

LIMITATION

The findings of this study are subject to several limitations. Firstly, the small sample size may not be representative of the broader population, limiting the generalizability of the results. Additionally, time constraints restricted the scope and depth of data collection and analysis. The study was conducted exclusively within Kolkata, and therefore the findings may not be applicable to populations in other geographic or socio-economic contexts. Furthermore, the data collected was qualitative in nature, it may lack the statistical robustness of quantitative data. Finally, the data did not follow a normal distribution, which may affect the applicability of certain statistical tests and interpretations.

SCOPE

Research may benefit from larger sample sizes, longitudinal methods and cross-cultural study and qualitative study to further explore these relationships.

APPLICABILITY

The concept of parental bonding, emotional intelligence, and resilience is essential for understanding the emotional and psychological development of young adults. During this life stage, individuals face major transitions, such as higher education, career decisions, and relationship challenges. Parental bonding forms the foundation for emotional learning, while emotional intelligence enables effective self-regulation and social interaction. Resilience supports coping with adversity and stress. Studying how these factors interrelate helps identify what influences healthy development and well-being in young adults. It also provides insights into how early family experiences can shape emotional strength and adaptability in adulthood.

CHAPTER VII

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CHAPTER VIII

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

CONSENT FORM

I _____ (respondent's name) hereby voluntarily agree to participate in the study. I understand that the Research Title **is "The Influence of Perceived Parental Bonding on Emotional Intelligence and Resilience among Young Adults"** and I give permission to Sreejita Ghosh (MSc Final Year student of Dept. of Psychology, Sister Nivedita University), to quote my responses for her research work. I understand that their work is for academic purposes.

I realise there is no risk involve in the current data collection procedure and that I can withdraw from the study at any time.

I also understand that the researcher, hereby named Sreejita Ghosh will maintain my anonymity with regard to my responses to Questionnaire items.

I hereby give my permission in the form of my signature below:

Signature:

Date:

Contacts of Researcher:

Sreejita Ghosh,

Email: sreejitaghosh2001@gmail.com

APPENDIX 2

SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC FORM

1. Name:
2. Age:
3. Gender:
   - ☐ Male
   - ☐ Female
   - ☐ Other

4. Religion:
5. Mother Tongue:

6. Educational Qualification:
7. School Name:

8. Family Type:
   - ☐ Nuclear
   - ☐ Joint
   - ☐ Extended
9. Number of family members:

10. Place of Current Residence:
11. Type of Residential Area:
    - ☐ Urban
    - ☐ Sub-urban
    - ☐ Rural

12. Mention if you have any diagnosed Chronic Physical Illness Condition:
13. Mention if you have any diagnosed Chronic Psychiatric or Psychological Illness Condition:
14. Mention if you are under any Regular Medication:

15. Family Interaction Pattern

    a. Communication: Direct/Indirect
    b. Leadership: Grandfather/ Grandmother/ Father/ Mother/ Others
    c. Decision Making: Grandfather/ Grandmother/ Father/ Mother/ Others
    d. Cohesiveness: Present/ Absent
    e. Do you feel that others think you as a family burden: Yes / No
    f. Expressed Emotion
        - ☐ Warmth
        - ☐ Supportive
        - ☐ Critical Comment
        - ☐ Emotional Overinvolvement

16. Family History of Psychiatric Illness:
17. Home Environment: Congenial / non-congenial
18. Peer Interaction:
        - ☐ Popular
        - ☐ Rejected
        - ☐ Neglected
        - ☐ Controversial

19. Date Of Data Collection:
20. E-mail Id:
21. Contact No.:

APPENDIX 3: Scale 1

This questionnaire lists various attitudes and behaviours of parents. As you remember your MOTHER in your first 16 years would you place a tick in the most appropriate box next to each question.

	Very like	Moderately like	Moderately unlike	Very unlike
1. Spoke to me in a warm and friendly voice	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Did not help me as much as I needed	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Let me do those things I liked doing	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Seemed emotionally cold to me	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Appeared to understand my problems and worries	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Was affectionate to me	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Liked me to make my own decisions	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Did not want me to grow up	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Tried to control everything I did	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Invaded my privacy	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Enjoyed talking things over with me	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. Frequently smiled at me	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. Tended to baby me	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. Did not seem to understand what I needed or wanted	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. Let me decide things for myself	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. Made me feel I wasn't wanted	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. Could make me feel better when I was upset	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. Did not talk with me very much	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. Tried to make me feel dependent on her/him	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. Felt I could not look after myself unless she/he was around	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. Gave me as much freedom as I wanted	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. Let me go out as often as I wanted	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. Was overprotective of me	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. Did not praise me	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. Let me dress in any way I pleased	☐	☐	☐	☐

This questionnaire lists various attitudes and behaviours of parents. As you remember your FATHER in your first 16 years would you place a tick in the most appropriate box next to each question.

	Very like	Moderately like	Moderately unlike	Very unlike
1. Spoke to me in a warm and friendly voice	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Did not help me as much as I needed	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Let me do those things I liked doing	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Seemed emotionally cold to me	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Appeared to understand my problems and worries	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Was affectionate to me	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Liked me to make my own decisions	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Did not want me to grow up	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Tried to control everything I did	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Invaded my privacy	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Enjoyed talking things over with me	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. Frequently smiled at me	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. Tended to baby me	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. Did not seem to understand what I needed or wanted	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. Let me decide things for myself	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. Made me feel I wasn't wanted	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. Could make me feel better when I was upset	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. Did not talk with me very much	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. Tried to make me feel dependent of her/him	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. Felt I could not look after myself unless she/he was around	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. Gave me as much freedom as I wanted	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. Let me go out as often as I wanted	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. Was overprotective of me	☐	☐	☐	☐
24.Did not praise me	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. Let me dress in any way I pleased	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX 4: Scale 2

Instructions: Indicate the extent to which each item applies to you using the scale in the five columns to the right of each item.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	I know when to speak about my personal problems to others	1	2	3	4	5
2.	When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I expect that I will do well on most things I try	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Other people find it easy to confide in me	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people*	5	4	3	2	1
6.	Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important	1	2	3	4	5
7.	When my mood changes, I see new possibilities	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I am aware of my emotions as I experience them	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I expect good things to happen	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I like to share my emotions with others	1	2	3	4	5
12.	When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I arrange events others enjoy	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I seek out activities that make me happy	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others	1	2	3	4	5
17.	When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me	1	2	3	4	5
18.	By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing	1	2	3	4	5
19.	I know why my emotions change	1	2	3	4	5
20.	When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas	1	2	3	4	5
21.	I have control over my emotions	1	2	3	4	5
22.	I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them	1	2	3	4	5
23.	I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on	1	2	3	4	5
24.	I compliment others when they have done something well	1	2	3	4	5
25.	I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send	1	2	3	4	5
26.	When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I have experienced this event myself	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
27. When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas	1	2	3	4	5
28. When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail*	5	4	3	2	1
29. I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them	1	2	3	4	5
30. I help other people feel better when they are down	1	2	3	4	5
31. I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles	1	2	3	4	5
32. I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice	1	2	3	4	5
33. It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do*	5	4	3	2	1

APPENDIX 5: Scale 3

Please respond to each item by marking one box per row		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
BRS 1	I tend to bounce back quickly after hard times	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
BRS 2	I have a hard time making it through stressful events.	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1
BRS 3	It does not take me long to recover from a stressful event.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
BRS 4	It is hard for me to snap back when something bad happens.	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1
BRS 5	I usually come through difficult times with little trouble.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
BRS 6	I tend to take a long time to get over set-backs in my life.	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1